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ABSTRACT

This publication, compiled as a learning component for persons enrolled in a vocational education teacher education program, provides information on sex equity in vocational education and employment. The content is in nine sections. The first defines sex discrimination, bias, and stereotypes. The next section covers female participation in the work force and includes entry rates, earnings, and economic need. The third section compares the participation of women and men in vocational training programs. Federal laws pertaining to sex equity are briefly summarized in the fourth section, while the fifth compares the Education Amendments of 1972 with those of 1976. The next section presents the provisions of the Education Amendments of 1976 regarding the administration of state vocational education programs, state use of vocational education funds, and national vocation education programs. The recruitment of students into courses nontraditional to their sex is discussed in the seventh section. The last two brief sections, respectively, discuss the program planning process and provide a list of source materials. A teacher self-assessment form on sex equity and vocational education and a test on the publication's content are appended. (EM)

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Sex Equity and Vocational Education

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Sex Equity and Vocational Education

Suzanne R. Weinheimer

Preface

The information contained in this publication was compiled as a learning component for individuals enrolled in the vocational education teacher education program offered by the Division of Vocational Education, University of California Extension. The ever-increasing emphasis on sex equity in education (particularly vocational education), employment, and upward mobility during an individual's life working span underscores the necessity for vocational education teachers to develop an awareness of and a capability for achieving sex equity in their instructional programs.

The vocational education teacher education staff of the Division of Vocational Education, University of California Extension, continues to develop and refine the content of each of the competency based modules in the teacher education program. The materials contained in this publication were pilot-tested in the 1978 summer session at UCLA and have been modified for inclusion in the teacher education instructional materials.

Suzanne R. Weinheimer is to be congratulated for the comprehensiveness of this publication. The information contained herein should be beneficial to all teachers in vocational education. Appreciation is expressed to Betty Horvath for final editing and preparation of this publication.

David Allen

1978

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SEX EQUITY AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The elimination of all forms of discrimination is essential to the survival of America. The establishment of sex equity is a necessity in the reduction of prevailing discriminatory practices. Vocational education teachers will have to provide instruction that maintains equity for both sexes and will have to assist in the transition of either sex into nontraditional jobs. The following material has been prepared to help teachers develop an awareness of sex equity.

Definitions of Terms

To begin the study of sex equity as related to one's work as a vocational education educator, it is important to understand some basic terms. These terms are:

Sex Discrimination

Sex discrimination refers to differential - i.e., specifically different - treatment of either males or females based upon sex, as carried out by an individual or an institution. There are two kinds of discrimination:

> Overt discrimination specifically excludes (refuses participation of) one sex or specifies different treatment of benefits based upon sex. If an institution has a nondiscrimination policy but, in practice, does not follow it, this is still discrimination. Some examples of overt discrimination are:
>
> a) different standards of conduct for males and females;
> b) classes composed of a single sex;
> c) low admission quotas for women.
>
> Covert discrimination is any procedure or policy which appears to be fair but discriminates unintentionally against one sex. Some examples of covert discrimination are:
>
> a) admitting only young students to college, thereby disqualifying older students, who tend to be women;
> b) providing training, but not actively developing placement opportunities for students enrolled in nontraditional programs for their sex.

Sex Bias

Sex bias is an arbitrary - i.e., self-determined - attitude which favors one sex over and above the other. This term is often used to describe books and films which advocate (support) a sex preference. For example, male bias

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Source materials are listed at the end of this paper.

is a preference for male individuals, attitudes or stereotypes and is often evident in literature, television shows, advertising and educational materials. The ideal standard, promoted by legislation, is to have equity between males and females.

Sex Stereotypes

Sex stereotypes are judgments - i.e., opinions - about males and females. Traditional sex stereotypes depict all females as dependent, noncompetitive, sexually provocative, physically weak, humanitarian do-gooders, homemakers and child-providers. From this point of view, female students are characterized as preoccupied with personal appearance, marriage and homemaking and opposed to academic and career considerations for the most part. These stereotypes assume that female competence in school and careers is confined to languages, the arts, secretarial and clerical fields, nursing and education - i.e., the "helping fields." Positions of leadership are not considered appropriate female domains.

On the other hand, according to the traditional sex stereotypes, males are supposed to be independent, aggressive, athletic, strong heads of households and wage earners. In the education process, males are assumed exceptional in math, science, vocational education subjects, sports and leadership. They are thought of as career-minded, and it is presumed that they will fill career roles as creators, builders and leaders in "important" vocations such as science, engineering, medicine, business and the trades.

The problem with stereotyping is that many males and females do not fit into these neat categories. For this reason, it is unfair and inaccurate to stereotype according to sex. Making decisions based upon sex stereotypes is considered discriminatory and can be challenged by the law.

Participation in the Work Force

Introduction

Vocational education educators are responsible for teaching skills which will enable students to perform in work roles both outside and within the home. For many years, vocational education programs have operated from assumptions that male students needed skills for work outside the home and that female students needed skills for work inside the home. However, the changing nature of our society has forced these assumptions to be challenged and modified. For today's society and the future, female and male students must be prepared for work roles in both settings.

It is useful to examine information pertaining to the participation of women and men in the paid labor force and in vocational training programs in order to understand the needs that necessitated legislative emphasis on sex equity in training and employment. This should also assist in the clarification of the needs of female students as they pursue occupational preparation in training programs.

Entry Rates

FACT: WOMEN ARE ENTERING THE WORK FORCE AT EVER-INCREASING RATES.

Data supporting the increasing rate of women entering the paid labor force are available from the turn of the century. In 1900, women were only 20 percent of the paid labor force in the United States. By 1940, their participation had increased to only 29 percent; yet, since the beginning of World War II, when large numbers of women became paid workers outside their homes, the rate of their involvement has steadily accelerated.

Wartime has consistently offered women an expanded role in the labor force. During the Revolutionary War, women did men's work. In the Civil War, paid women workers were employed in services supporting the needs of the military, and new professional careers for women were established. In World War II, Rosie the Riveter was the heroine of the war effort. She was the "All-American Girl" who went to work in an airplane factory when her boyfriend volunteered for the service. Following World War II, most of the women who helped to win the war from the defense plants left their paid work roles to assume roles as suburban homemakers.

"Each major American war has permanently liberated women from some restriction on their freedom. The Civil War has made it respectable for them to leave their homes to work in public. Their contribution to World War I secured them the vote. World War II offered married women the option of working for money when they needed it, and at the same time gave to industry a badly needed flexible labor reserve."[1]

In 1960, women comprised 33 percent of the paid labor force; in 1970, the figure was 38 percent; and today, the figure is 41 percent. At the present rate, women will make up 50 percent of the paid work force by the year 2000, if not before. The increase of women in the labor force has many long-term implications.

In the past, minority females have had much higher participation rates in the labor force than have nonminority females. However, the year 1975 data showed only a two percent difference - i.e., 56 percent minority versus 54 percent nonminority for the 18 to 64 age group. Census data show that black women have had the longest employment history, gradually diminishing from an 1890 peak rate two times greater than that for white women.

A recent Labor Department survey shows that in 47.1 percent of the nation's marriages, both husbands and wives are working. The typical American family of today is quite different from the traditional model of the past. Presently, three-fifths of all women in the paid labor force are married and living with their husbands; more than one-fifth have never married; and nearly one-fifth are widowed, divorced or separated.

The presence of young children in the home has always affected the entry of women into the labor force. However, mothers are working outside the home in increasing numbers. Of all women with children under the age of 18 in 1975, 47.4 percent were in the paid labor force (compared to 46 percent of

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1. Bird, Carolyn, Enterprising Women. New York: 1976, p. 167.

the total female population). The previous least-represented segment, mothers with children under six years of age, is now entering the paid labor force at a faster rate than that of any other group.

Women in the paid labor force do not differ significantly from the general population of women, according to a profile of the employed females in the United States.

Longevity in the Work Force

FACT: THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF YEARS THAT WOMEN SPEND IN THE PAID LABOR FORCE IS INCREASING.

Future labor projections pertinent to the participation of young women indicate that:

- Single women will work for 40 years;
- Married women without children will work for 30 years;
- Married women will work for 15 to 25 years, depending on the number of children they are raising;
- At birth, the average young woman can anticipate 22.9 years of paid employment.

The trend for women to spend more years in the paid labor force is continuing.

Representation in the Work Force

FACT: WOMEN TEND TO BE CONCENTRATED IN A FEW "WOMEN'S" OCCUPATIONS, MOST OF WHICH ARE LOW-PAYING JOBS.

Nearly 70 percent of all female workers are employed in three occupational groups: Clerical - 35 percent, Service - 18 percent, and Professional/Technical - 15 percent. By comparison, only 50 percent of all male workers are employed in the three areas where they have the largest representation: Skilled Crafts - 21 percent, Professional/Technical - 14 percent and Managers - 14 percent.

Women are more likely to be white-collar workers but hold jobs that require less skill and pay less money than those held by men. Women are seldom employed as skilled craft workers. However, they are almost as likely as men to be employed as operatives.

A male high school graduate's chances of becoming a manager or business owner is three times greater than the chances for a female with a similar education. Male college graduates are likely to be employed as professionals, managers, business owners and salespersons. Female college graduates are apt to be found in "female professions" - nursing, teaching and clerical jobs. Thus, women are frequently overeducated for the types of jobs in which they are employed.

Earnings

FACT: THE EARNINGS OF WOMEN ARE LIKELY TO BE LOWER THAN THE EARNINGS OF MEN, EVEN WHEN WOMEN ARE EMPLOYED IN THE SAME OCCUPATIONS.

Women not only earn less than their male counterparts in the paid work force, but the gap between their earnings is increasing. For example, in 1967, female workers earned 62¢ for every $1.00 earned by male workers. By 1972, that figure dropped to 58¢, and in 1974 to 57¢ for full-time working women compared to full-time working men.

There are factors that result in earning differences between employed men and women. Women are:

- concentrated in lower-status, traditional jobs that reflect their limited educational experiences.
- frequently paid less than men for performing the same job.
- substantially increasing in number for new or reentry jobs and must often accept low-paying positions.

Even when occupations, work experience and education are taken into account, women earn considerably less than men. The earnings of female workers, in most instances, are less than those of male workers even when both are working in the same occupational areas. This indicates sex segregation within an occupation.

TABLE 1 - OCCUPATIONAL EARNINGS OF WOMEN AND MEN, 1974

Occupational Group	Earnings, 1974		% Men's Earnings Exceeded Women's
	Women	Men	
Professional & Technical Workers	$9,570	$14,873	55.4
Managers and Administrators	8,603	15,425	79.3
Sales Workers (Total)	5,168	12,523	142.3
Retail Trade	4,734	9,125	92.8
Other Sales Workers	8,452	13,983	65.4
Clerical Workers	6,827	11,514	68.7
Craft Workers	6,492	12,028	85.3
Operatives	5,766	10,176	76.5
Service Workers	5,046	8,638	71.2
Farmers and Farm Managers	---	5,459	---
Nonfarm Laborers	5,891	8,145	38.3
Private Household Workers	2,676	---	---

(Source of Table 1: Women's Bureau, "The Earnings Gap Between Women and Men." Washington: Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 1976, p.8.)

An illustration of the earnings differential between female and male workers is seen in the 1974 statistic that shows the median income of women with four years of college to be less than the median income of men who had completed eight years of elementary school.

Minority women have the lowest income of all worker groups. The 1974 data show that the median income of minority women was 6 percent less than that of white women, 27 percent less than that of minority males, and 46 percent less than that of white males. Minority and nonminority women have comparable earnings when education is held constant.

Economic Need

FACT: WOMEN ARE MORE LIKELY TO SUFFER FROM ECONOMIC NEED OR POVERTY.

Of those women who work outside the home, two-thirds are employed out of economic necessity.

- 68 percent support themselves or their families or supplement their husband's low income;
- 42 percent of all women workers have no husband present;
- 2[illegible] percent of married women workers with a husband present are supplementing their husband's income of less than $9,999 annually.

The economic need of minority women is even greater.

- 63 percent of minority women workers have husbands whose incomes are less than $10,000 annually;
- Minority families headed by a woman were twice as likely to have low/poverty-level incomes as white families in 1973;
- 19 percent of minority female-headed families were classified as low-income families in 1973, while only 4 percent of white female-headed families were in the same classification. (Poverty level was considered to be $4,540 or less annual income for a family of four.)

Unemployment rates are another indicator of women's economic need. These are higher for women than for men.

- The unemployment rate was 9.3 percent for women and 7.9 percent for men in 1975.
- Teenagers have a higher rate of unemployment than do adults; minorities have a higher rate than do nonminorities.
- Minority females in the 16 - 19 age group have a 38.5 percent unemployment rate, the highest of any group in the population.

On examining the characteristics of minority women in the paid work force, the following was found:

- Black women comprised 11 percent of the total population of women and were 13 percent of all women workers in 1974. Black females continued to exceed white females in all age groups of the paid work force above age 25.

- The work force participation of Hispanic women in all age groups were below those of black and white women in 1972, as is the case with Mexican-American and Puerto Rican women also. However, when Cuban women are considered, their work force participation exceeds that of either black or white women.

- The work force participation of Asian-American groups in 1970 were: Filipino women - 55 percent, Japanese women - 50 percent and Chinese women - 50 percent. These groups of women are entering the paid work force in rapidly increasing numbers.

- Census data for 1976 revealed that 35 percent of all American Indian women were in the paid work force, as were 29 percent of all Eskimos and Aleut women.

Participation in Vocational Training Programs

Introduction

Vocational training programs are the direct link between schooling and employment. There are distinct similarities between occupational sex segregation and the world of work and sex-segregated enrollments in vocational education training programs. Because of that critical link to paid employment, vocational educators have a crucial role in ensuring that students are provided learning experiences free from sex bias, stereotyping and discrimination so that they are better able to fulfill their unique potential.

Also, we have a responsibility to help students understand the changing roles available to women and men in the work force and in society as a whole. Thus, the ability of these individuals to adjust successfully to the kinds of situations they will face as adults will be greatly improved.

Methods of Comparing Data

As to the relationships between the distribution of females and males in occupational categories and the enrollment patterns of females and males in vocational education programs, different bases should be used in comparing the data. For the vocational education programs, a balanced representation of students by sex would be 50 percent female and 50 percent male because the number of either sex entering any program is potentially equal. As to the occupational data, a balanced representation would be 60 percent male and 40 percent female because females represent 41.1 percent of the paid work force.

Comparative Data

TABLE 2 - DISTRIBUTION OF WOMEN AND MEN IN THE WORK FORCE - 1977

Major Occupational Group	Percentage Female	Percentage Male
Professional/Technical Workers	42.0	58.0
Managers/Administrators	20.8	79.2
Sales Workers	42.9	57.1
Clerical Workers	78.2	21.3
Craft and Kindred Workers	4.8	95.2
Operatives	31.2	68.8
Nonfarm Laborers	9.3	90.7
Service Workers	61.5	38.5
Farm Workers	16.2	83.8

Source: U. S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

TABLE 3 - DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALES AND MALES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION - 1975

Vocational Education Programs	Percentage Female	Percentage Male
Agriculture	9.2	90.8
Distribution	42.8	57.2
Health	71.7	28.3
Consumer & Homemaking	81.9	18.1
Occupational Home Economics	73.2	26.8
Office	69.3	30.7
Technical	10.7	89.3
Trade & Industry	12.6	87.4
Special Programs	26.7	73.3

Source: Department of Health, Education and Welfare's Office of Education, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, "Comparative Analysis of Vocational Education Enrollment by Sex in Fiscal Years 1972 and 1975." Washington D.C., Spring, 1977.

In comparing the distribution data by sex contained in Table 2 and Table 3, the following points are evident:

- Males are 79.2 percent of all managerial/administrative workers, 95.2 percent of all craft and kindred workers, 68.8 percent of all operatives, 83.8 percent of all farm workers and 90.7 percent of all nonfarm laborers.

In vocational education programs, males are 90.8 percent of the enrollees in agricultural programs, 89.3 percent of enrollees in technical programs and 87.4 percent of enrollees in trade and industrial programs.

Thus, training in these three areas leads directly to employment in occupations in which men predominate.

° Women are 78.2 percent of all clerical and 61.5 percent of all service workers.

In vocational education programs, female are 81.9 percent of the enrollees in consumer and homemaking programs, 73.2 percent of the enrollees in occupational home economics programs and 71.7 percent of the enrollees in health programs.

Females trained in some of these vocational programs are employed in clerical and service occupations, already predominately female.

° Only in the occupational areas of sales workers (42.9%) and professional/technical workers (42%) are there balanced representations of women proportionate to their existence in the total paid work force.

In vocational education programs, the only area which is not sex-segregated is distributive education, with 48.8 percent female enrollment and 57.2 percent male enrollment.

Even though it may appear that sex segregation does not exist in these areas, it is important to examine the data in greater detail. Although women are equitably represented as sales and professional/technical workers and it would appear that these occupations are sex-integrated, Table 1 - Occupational Earnings of Women and Men, 1974, should be referred to. Table 1 indicates that, in the total sales workers' group, men's earnings exceed women's earnings by 142.3 percent. For professional/technical workers, the difference is 55.4 percent in favor of men. This indicates that sex segregation of female workers and male workers exists in these occupational groups within categories of jobs.

TABLE 4 - MAJOR OCCUPATIONS EMPLOYING MEN AND WOMEN

10 Major Occupations Employing Women	10 Major Occupations Employing Men
Secretaries	Engineers
Food Service Workers	Carpenters
Teachers (except college and university)	Auto Mechanics
Sales Clerks	Mechanics, except Auto
Bookkeepers	Blue Collar Worker Supervisors
Health Service Workers (Dental Assistants, Practical Nurses, Nursing Aides)	Truck Drivers
Personal Service Workers (Hairdressers, Child Care Workers, Attendants)	Cleaning Workers
Nurses, Dieticians, Therapists	Food Service Workers
Cashiers	Farm Owners and Tenants
Private Household Workers	Protective Service Workers (Fire, Police, etc.)

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, "Table 1: Employed Persons in Selected Occupations - 1976 Annual Averages." Washington, D.C.: Women's Bureau, 1977.
(Calculations made by Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education.)

Table 4 presents another set of data relevant to the distribution of females and males in the paid labor force - the ten major occupations employing the greatest number of females and males in 1976.

- Approximately two-fifths (40%) of all female workers are employed in the "10 Major Areas Employing Women." Only one-fifth (20%) of all male workers are employed in the "10 Major Occupations Employing Men."

  This demonstrates that female workers are much more concentrated in a few occupational categories than are male workers.

  Of these twenty occupational areas, only two cannot be entered through vocational education programs. Vocational education programs exist for the other eighteen areas, although there are other routes through which individuals may enter these occupations, also.

  The significance of these data is that vocational educators are in an advantageous position for breaking down sex bias, stereotyping and discrimination in the work world if th y succeed in reducing/eliminating these barriers to equity in their own training programs.

Current Trends

When an examination was made of female and male enrollments in vocational education programs in 1969 and 1975, the following evidence emerged:

- Female enrollments are increasing in agriculture, technical and trade and industry programs.
- More males are entering health, consumer and homemaking, occupational home economics and office occupations programs.
- Enrollments in vocational education programs which are non-traditional for their sex are increasing at a faster rate for males than for females.

Some of the probable reasons for this phenomenon are:

Returning military veterans, unable to find work, have pursued training related to their service experience, such as health and office occupations.

The health field has opened new training programs, such as emergency medical and rescue, in which males have been encouraged to enroll.

Some states have passed regulations/laws which require male students to complete a unit in consumer and homemaking skills, either as a single course or as part of a practical arts core curriculum.

Laws Pertaining to Sex Equity

Introduction

Equal access to education, training and employment is considered to be an inherent right of each citizen. Yet, the historical record of this nation contains periods of conflict, as citizen groups have unified to protest deprivation of access to these and other rights. The past twenty-five years have been an era of revolt against traditions which continue to impose limitations on certain groups. Beginning with the 1954 Supreme Court ruling outlawing public school segregation on the basis of race, the human rights movement has been active, and legislation has followed.

Issues of discrimination based upon race have been the focus of attention since 1956 - i.e., the Montgomery, Alabama bus boycott. Issues of discrimination on the basis of sex first aroused national attention in the struggle for women's voting rights during the first quarter of this century. From that time until the 1960's, the supporters of equal rights for women were successfully stymied in their uninterrupted efforts to prevail over those defending traditions that perpetuate discrimination against women.

With passage of equal rights legislation, females and males are beginning to experience expanding access to opportunities in education, training and employment; increasing available options; and protection against discriminatory treatment based on sex. However, information contained in the previous section suggests that legislation, by itself, does not eliminate discriminatory practices. The widening gap in earnings between women and men since the passage of the Equal Pay Act is a reminder of this fact.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963

Discrimination on the basis of sex in the payment of wages for equal work on jobs that require equal skill, effort and responsibility and are performed under similar working conditions is prohibited by the Equal Pay Act of 1963. This protection was extended to executive, administrative and professional employees as well as outside sales personnel in July, 1972. Most Federal, State and local government employees were included as of May 1, 1974.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VII

Discrimination in employment based on sex, race, color, religion and national origin is prohibited by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Extension of this coverage to include state and local government agencies and public and private schools was included in a 1972 Equal Employment Opportunity Act amendment to the original legislation. This law prohibits discrimination in hiring and firing, wages and fringe benefits; classifying, referring, assigning and promoting of employees; extending and assigning use of facilities; training, retraining, apprenticeships or any other terms, conditions or privileges of employment.

Guidelines for Title VII, issued by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), the agency responsible for enforcement of Title VII, specify that this law supersedes (overrides) any state laws that prevent women from working at certain kinds of jobs, working more than certain hours, and other "protective" legislation. Classification of jobs as "men's jobs" and "women's jobs" are banned by the EEOC guidelines, and exceptions to the law are narrowly defined under "bona fide occupational qualifications (BFOQ)."

Executive Orders 11246 and 11375

Effective September 24, 1965, Executive Order 11246 requires all government contracts to include provisions forbidding federal contractors and subcontractors from discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion or national origin in their employment practices. Executive Order 11375 was a 1967 amendment to the earlier Executive Order which prohibits sex discrimination on the part of these same employers. In 1972, regulations from the Office of Federal Contract Compliance were revised to require affirmative action goals and timetables in order to increase the representation of women in job categories where they are underrepresented.

The Education Amendments of 1972, Title IX

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 states that "no persons in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or subjected to discrimination under any

education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance...." This legislation has had direct influence on vocational education programs maintained by local educational agencies and institutions. It is aimed at specific forms of sex discrimination in education policies, programs and practices. For vocational education, the issues addressed include discrimination in admissions, in access to courses and facilities, in treatment of students, course completion and graduation requirements, marital and/or parental status, student employment and employment of educational personnel.

The Education Amendments of 1976, Title II

One of the major aims of Title II (Vocational Education) of the Education Amendments of 1976 is to overcome sex discrimination, sex bias and sex stereotyping in vocational education. While the provisions of this legislation are similar in intent to those of Title IX, there are some important differences between the two laws.

Comparison of Title IX and the 1976 Education Amendments

Introduction

Much of the previous information related to participation in the work force and vocational training programs was presented at the Congressional hearings on Title IX and the sex fairness provisions of the Education Amendments of 1976. These laws are directed toward helping to bring about necessary changes in the education, training and employment of both females and males.

Differences Between the Two Laws

- Title IX addresses the issue of sex discrimination in education programs; it generally requires that persons may not be excluded from, denied participation in or be treated differently in education programs. The Education Amendments not only address sex discrimination, which is defined as "any action which limits or denies a person or a group of persons opportunities, privileges, roles or rewards on the basis of their sex," but also sex bias ("behavior resulting from the assumption that one sex is superior to the other") and sex stereotyping ("attributing behaviors, abilities, interests, values and roles to a person or group of persons on the basis of their sex").

- The Title IX regulations apply directly to local educational agencies and institutions. The Education Amendments of 1976 apply directly only to State and Federal vocational education programs. They affect local vocational education programs and institutions indirectly through their specification of priorities and procedures for State use of Federal vocational education monies. This, in turn, affects State funding of various local vocational education programs and institutions.

- Title IX specifies a variety of forms of discrimination in educational policies, programs or practices which are prohibited. (See Title IX above for specific prohibitions.) The Education Amendments of 1976 complement the specific prohibitions of sex discrimination established

by Title IX with a mandate for the development of programs to overcome sex bias, stereotyping and discrimination in vocational education and an authorization to States to use Federal monies for this purpose.

Provisions of the Education Amendments of 1976 Related to Sex Equity in Vocational Education with Implications for Local Vocational Education Personnel

Introduction

Although the provisions of the Education Amendments of 1976 related to sex equity in vocational education apply directly only to programs at the Federal and State levels, they establish administrative procedures, program mandates and funding options which are likely to have significant implications for local vocational education programs. Possible implications for local vocational education programs may be identified within each of the three major categories of the provisions:

- Requirements for the administration of State vocational education programs
- Provisions governing State use of Federal vocational education funds
- Requirements for national vocational education programs

Requirements for Administration of State Vocational Education Programs

The requirements for overcoming sex bias in and through State administration of vocational education programs have several possible implications for local vocational education programs and personnel.

- States are required by the Amendments to develop incentives which will encourage local agencies and institutions to:
  - PROMOTE ENROLLMENT BY STUDENTS IN COURSES AND PROGRAMS
  - DEVELOP MODEL PROGRAMS TO REDUCE SEX STEREOTYPING

  Local agencies and institutions are likely to find their programs and funding options influenced by such incentives. Further, the State sex bias coordinators are required by the Amendments to review all vocational education grants made by the State to ensure that the needs of women are addressed. This requirement should be kept in mind by agencies seeking grants.

- State personnel with specific responsibilities relating to overcoming sex bias, stereotyping and discrimination in vocational education programs should be able to provide technical assistance services to local vocational education personnel. Technical assistance might be provided in such areas as:

- DATA GATHERING REGARDING ENROLLMENTS OF FEMALES AND MALES

- RESOURCE IDENTIFICATION FOR SEX EQUITY PROGRAMS AND EFFORTS

- DEVELOPMENT/IDENTIFICATION OF MODEL PROGRAMS

- INTERPRETATION OF FEDERAL AND STATE NONDISCRIMINATION LAWS RELEVANT TO VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

- INSERVICE TRAINING RELATED TO SEX EQUITY IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

° Although neither the Amendments nor the regulations include provisions directly applicable to local education agencies, agencies may want to model their administration of vocational education programs in accordance with sex equity requirements established for States. Local agencies and institutions can:

ESTABLISH GOALS AND OBJECTIVES FOR OVERCOMING SEX BIAS, STEREOTYPING AND DISCRIMINATION IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION POLICIES, PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES;

ASSIGN SPECIFIC PERSONNEL THE RESPONSIBILITY FOR ENSURING THAT VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS PROVIDE EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR FEMALES AND MALES;

ENSURE REPRESENTATION OF MINORITY AND NONMINORITY FEMALES AND MALES WITH A KNOWLEDGE OF WOMEN'S ISSUES AND CONCERNS ON THE LOCAL VOCATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL;

DEVELOP A PLAN TO EVALUATE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR COMPLIANCE WITH FEDERAL NONDISCRIMINATION LEGISLATION AND FOR THEIR PROVISION OF SEX EQUITY FOR MALES AND FEMALES.

Provisions Governing State Use of Vocational Education Funds

The implications of the Amendments for local vocational education personnel may be most direct in those provisions which govern State use of vocational education funds. Decisions made by the States regarding use of Federal funds for vocational education programs (reflected in the States' five-year and annual program plans) will shape funding and program opportunities for local educational agencies and institutions. Vocational educators should, therefore, have a knowledge of the following:

° Provisions of their State's five-year plan for vocational education, including those related to the overcoming of bias and discrimination;

° Provisions of the local school district's current plan for vocational education, including those related to overcoming sex bias and discrimination;

° The manifestations and/or sources of sex bias and discrimination in their local vocational education programs.

With this information, local personnel can evaluate district needs and priorities in light of State funding priorities in order to determine action plans for program development related to sex equity and to identify future funding opportunities for such programs.

Requirements for National Vocational Education Programs

Possible local implications of the Amendments' requirements for national vocational education programs include the following:

- Local vocational education personnel will need to review their procedures for collecting data on vocational education students, including data on their race and sex, to ensure that they are consistent with those prescribed by their State in accordance with the national system of data collection.

- The national study on sex bias in vocational education will be forthcoming in October, 1978. The Office of Education has also made grants or awarded contracts for development of a variety of materials related to sex bias and discrimination in vocational education. Local personnel should keep informed concerning the availability of these various materials and obtain them for local use.

- Districts can obtain funds directly from the U. S. Commissioner of Education for exemplary programs of national significance which focus on eliminating sex bias and discrimination in vocational education. Personnel interested in such programs should review the procedural requirements specified in the regulations.

Recruitment of Students into Courses Nontraditional to Their Sex

Introduction

In order to change the sex-segregated representation reflected in nearly all vocational education programs and, consequently, in many work force occupations (see p. 8), it will be necessary to recruit students into vocational courses nontraditional to their sex and to ensure their successful completion of such courses/programs. Both activities require the energetic support and participation of vocational education instructors to occur. Where there is 80 percent or more of one sex in a vocational course/program, imbalance of representation exists.

Recruitment

Methods of determining strategies for recruitment that involve staff, student and community representatives in the planning process will have the best results. "Brainstorming" sessions to determine such strategies will generate a number of ideas that can be implemented and the people willing to do the work.

Each vocational program setting and student population is uniquely different. Therefore, the planning process must be directed at what will work best in each individual situation. However, some recruitment methods that have been successful are the following:

- Special programs/"Open House" for students, family members and local business and industry representatives;
- Community resource people who are employed in nontraditional jobs, used as sponsors, speakers and role models;
- Vocational education teachers performing the function of orienting the potential and existing student population to vocational program offerings - i.e., visiting "feeder" school classrooms and visiting required academic subject classrooms;
- Posters showing people in nontraditional training and work roles, containing information stimulating to student interest, placed at key locations around the campus;
- Brochures prepared that advertise nontraditional programs and their advantages to students. Note: Care should be given to plan the most effective methods of disseminating these to potential students.
- Articles written for the school and community newspapers pertaining to job opportunities in nontraditional areas;
- Public service announcements and/or special programs for local radio and television programming;
- Cooperative planning and implementation of curricular activities, projects, units of study, etc., involving vocational education and academic subject matter teachers and students.

Remember, the individual teacher is the best recruiter. The teacher's attitude toward having nontraditional students in the course/program will be reflected in the results of the recruitment efforts.

Support Services

To ensure that nontraditional students are able successfully to complete vocational education programs once they are enrolled, special support services must be considered. Despite the strength and independence of these students, evident in their ability to overcome societal, family and/or peer pressures against choosing a nontraditional program, they will probably need assistance in confronting discriminatory treatment from others in the training program and job search process and after employment (placement).

An early hurdle for the nontraditional student is learning to deal with attitudes and behavior originating from sex bias, stereotypes and discrimination on the part of some classmates and, sometimes, from the instructor. Whether or not they complete the program will largely be determined by their competence in overcoming these "challenges." A second hurdle exists in the

job search process, where there are women and men in hiring positions that are obstructive to people seeking nontraditional work roles. A third hurdle can exist after employment is achieved. There can be co-workers, as well as supervisory and management personnel, who consent to the mandate in hiring nontraditional workers but who then proceed to make the work environment uncomfortable in an attempt to get them to quit.

All of these hurdles can be overcome if vocational education personnel are willing to accept the fact that the hurdles exist and assume responsibility for providing special support services to their nontraditional students from the time of their entrance into the programs.

One method that has succeeded with nontraditional students is to provide group guidance sessions on a weekly basis during which problems are discussed as they occur. These may be single-sex groups or coeducational groups; or the groups can alternate - i.e., one week meeting as a single-sex group, the following week meeting as a coed group. The purposes of these group guidance sessions are for the students and facilitators to generate optional ways to deal with specific problems and to diminish/reverse the negative impact that these experiences can have on student progress in programs.

If there are no vocational education staff and/or counseling personnel with the necessary skills and sympathetic consciousness available at the training site to facilitate such groups, facilitators from the community should be enlisted. Community counseling services, commissions on the status of women staff and members, feminist groups and labor union/apprenticeship organizations are some of the possible sources for these facilitators.

Women and men already employed in nontraditional job roles can often be sources of useful information and encouragement for students, positive role models, and even suppliers of placement information. Their occasional participation in the group guidance sessions can provide issues for students to discuss in a supportive group setting before having to confront such issues on an individual basis.

Nontraditional and traditional students should have specific knowledge of the laws prohibiting discrimination in employment practices as part of their vocational training process. In addition, they need to know the state and federal agencies to which they can turn for counseling pertaining to grievances.

Other kinds of support services for nontraditional students, if not for all vocational education students, to maximize their success and to meet recognized needs can be provided by instructional staff. Time should be provided to consider such services and to explore the available alternatives.

Placement and the Role of the Vocational Education Teacher

Placement of nontraditional students in jobs is a more difficult process than it is for traditional students. Therefore, the vocational education teacher plays a significant role in providing access to the employment community for nontraditional students. Fair treatment regardless of sex must be actively promoted in all facets of education, business and industry and the

community at large in order that nontraditional students can merge readily into the work roles for which they have been trained. The vocational education teacher can be a catalyst in this process, exerting a leadership role in expanding opportunities available for all students.

Program Planning

Basic Principles of Effective Program Planning

1. Planning the program is an ongoing, continuous process. Every program should be in some phase of the program planning process.

2. Planners of programs should utilize all seven phases of the program planning process.

3. Individuals who will carry out the program should either be specifically included or represented in every phase of the process.

4. Timelines should be carefully delineated, and responsibilities should be clearly assigned.

5. Plans, in most cases, should include an inservice training component as part of the implementation phase.

Seven-Step Program Planning Process

Step 1: Set measurable goals and objectives.

Step 2: Plan programs for each goal (include specified objectives, subobjectives, work activities, products and outcomes).

Step 3: Develop a budget.

Step 4: Implement the program.

Step 5: Evaluate the program.

Step 6: Update and adjust program plans.

Step 7: Report the results of the program.

SOURCE MATERIALS

"Implementing Title IX and Attaining Sex Equity: Application Materials for Vocational Education Personnel." Title IX Equity Workshops Project. Council of Chief State School Officers, 1201 - 16th Street, N.W., Suite 701, Washington, D.C. 20036 (1977).

"Overcoming Sex Bias and Discrimination in Vocational Education: Application Session A and B for Vocational Education Personnel." Prepared for Council of Chief State School Officers by the Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education, National Foundation for the Improvement of Education (1977).

Rules and Regulations - Vocational Amendments of 1976. Federal Register. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, October 3, 1977.

Vetter, Louise, and Marla Peterson. "Sex Equity: The Call to Leadership." American Vocational Journal, March, 1978.

APPENDIX A

- Self-Assessment

- Checkup Examination

Name: _____

SELF-ASSESSMENT

SEX EQUITY AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Directions: Below is a series of five-point scales focusing on teacher responsibilities in the area of student access to courses. On the left side of the scale are the Title IX implementation steps basic to achieving compliance with the law. On the right side are the sex equity measures which would fall under the broader scope of the Education Amendments of 1976, which are designed to eliminate not only sex discrimination but also sex bias and sex stereotyping. As a guide, think of the left as basic steps for compliance with nondiscrimination requirements of Title IX and the right as steps for actively overcoming sex bias and stereotyping. The midpoint would be beyond nondiscrimination but short of full active efforts to achieve sex equity. Read each scale, decide where you are, and circle the number of that point. If you've not achieved minimal compliance, give yourself a "0" on that item.

HAVE YOU DONE THE FOLLOWING:

	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Familiarized yourself with the regulatory requirements of Title IX and their implications for your program area?				Familiarized yourself with the legislation and regulatory requirements of the Education Amendments and considered their implications for your area and made suggestions for programs?
2.	Made sure that all vocational and related courses and programs for which you have responsibility are open to both males and females according to the same criteria?				Made curricular and programmatic changes, including provision of support services, which will assure males and females entering and remaining in courses/programs nontraditional to their sex?
3.	Reviewed all course descriptions and curriculum guides to ensure that females and males are treated equally in all courses/programs for which you are responsible?				Examined all course descriptions and curriculum guides to ensure that females and males needing supplemental education because of their sex role socialization or sex bias or discrimination experienced earlier receive such help?
4.	Reviewed all course enrollments by sex to identify those with 80 percent or more of one sex?				Examined all course enrollments by sex to identify those with 65 percent or more of one sex?

5.	1	2	3	4	5
	Taken steps to assure yourself that sex discrimination is not a causative factor if you've found courses with disproportionate enrollments?				Developed and implemented an action plan for reducing the discrepancy in number of females and males enrolled if you've found courses with disproportionate enrollments?

6.	1	2	3	4	5
	Submitted information to your supervisor regarding any instances of discrimination you've identified in policies, practices and materials related to student access to courses/programs?				Developed and implemented a monitoring system for determining the effectiveness of action plans to eliminate existing sex bias, stereotyping and discrimination and to identify instances of new discrimination that might arise?

Total equity score:_____
(Compute total for all scales and divide by 6.)

Name: _____

CHECKUP EXAMINATION

SEX EQUITY AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Directions: For each of the following questions or statements, draw a circle around the letter preceding the one best answer.

1. Sex discrimination refers to:

   a. personal judgements about males and females that categorize behavior and ambitions.

   b. personal attitudes favoring one sex over and above the other.

   c. different treatment of either males or females based upon their sex.

2. Sex stereotypes refer to:

   a. personal judgments about males and females that categorize behavior and ambitions.

   b. personal attitudes favoring one sex over and above the other.

   c. different treatment of either males or females based upon their sex.

3. Sex bias refers to:

   a. personal judgements about males and females that categorize behavior and ambitions.

   b. personal attitudes favoring one sex over and above the other.

   c. different treatment of either males or females based upon their sex.

4. Women make up _____ of the nation's paid labor force.

   a. 26%
   b. 41%
   c. 54%

5. For every $1.00 that men earn, women earn _____.

   a. 95¢
   b. 76¢
   c. 57¢

6. The highest unemployment rate among any group in our society is found among 16 - 19-year old _____.

   a. minority males
   b. minority females
   c. nonminority males
   d. nonminority females

7. Married women work outside the home primarily

   a. to avoid boredom
   b. to earn their own "pin money"
   c. to supplement their husbands' limited income

8. The median income of working women with four years of college is _____ that of men who have completed eight years of elementary school.

   a. more than
   b. the same as
   c. less than

9. Both husband and wife work in _____ of the nation's marriages.

   a. 35%
   b. 47%
   c. 28%

10. The vocational training area with the largest female enrollment (more than one-third of all females enrolled in vocational education) is _____.

    a. consumer and homemaking
    b. occupational home economics
    c. office

11. Trends in male/female enrollments in vocational training programs show that

    a. females are enrolling in traditionally male courses at a faster rate than males are entering traditionally female programs.
    b. males are enrolling in traditionally female courses at a faster rate than females are entering traditionally male programs.
    c. the entry of males and females into programs nontraditional to their sex is occurring at about the same rate.

12. It is estimated that the number of males and females in the labor force will be equal by the year

    a. 1985
    b. 2000
    c. 2010

13. About _____ out of 10 adult women are either single, widowed, divorced or separated from their husbands.

    a. four
    b. six
    c. eight

14. The government agency responsible for enforcement of Title VII is:

a. The Fair Employment Practices Commission
b. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
c. The Civil Service Commission
d. The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs

15. If one person is paid less than another for performing substantially the same job under similar working conditions, a complaint can be filed under

a. The Equal Employment Opportunity Act
b. Title VII
c. The Equal Pay Act
d. The Vocational Education Amendments of 1976

Directions: Listed below are 10 items which are specific provisions (letter of the law) of either Title IX or the Education Amendments of 1976. Read each one and determine which piece of legislation would apply. Write either Title IX or Vocational Education Act (VEA) in the blank provided.

_____ 1. Using different criteria based on sex for admitting males and females into auto mechanics class.

_____ 2. Having single-sex clubs such as an all-male chapter of Future Farmers of America.

_____ 3. Requiring states to develop five-year vocational education program plans which include specific steps for eliminating sex discrimination.

_____ 4. A program priority of consumer and homemaking education for both males and females.

_____ 5. Developing programs and securing funds for vocational training programs for homemakers who have experienced divorce or separation from their spouses.

_____ 6. Guidance counselors channeling males into industrial arts and females into home economics.

_____ 7. Each state agency designating a person who has responsibility for reducing/eliminating sex bias and discrimination in vocational education.

_____ 8. Developing and securing resources for an inservice training program on how to eliminate sex bias and discrimination for vocational education instructors.

_____ 9. Not allowing a certificated male to teach child development or a qualified female to teach carpentry simply because of their sex.

_____ 10. Assigning students to apprenticeships or work experience programs solely on the basis of their sex.